VOLUME XIII NUMBER 9

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

MAY 1913

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

Detroit Plans a Six-Year Elementary Course

Radical modifications in the organization of the elementary school are sure to appear within the next few years. The following general announcement from Superintendent Chadsey of Detroit is interesting as indicating one line of cleavage which is likely to be followed in many school systems. He is reported to have said: "Our plans call for a series of schools located in all sections of the city at which special attention shall be given to industrial and economic subjects, especially after the sixth grade. We hope that the plans of the school board may be realized during the next three years." The course up to the end of the sixth grade will deal with the fundamental subjects of instruction. Beyond this point there will be specialization. In one of these special courses emphasis will be laid upon commercial subjects, in another upon industrial forms of training, and the third special course will be designated an academic course. This is the one which will naturally be taken by the students who are going forward to higher schools. Girls have not been overlooked in the plans made by the board; the industrial and economic school centers will give special courses for the girl who is preparing to go into business and earn her living or for the girl who is preparing to take charge of a home. Domestic science will therefore be a part of these elementary courses and certain industrial lines of training will also be given.

Differentiation of the elementary schools beyond the sixth grade will mean the earlier beginning of the type of work which heretofore

has been common in the high school. There is in this plan of reorganization a clear recognition of the fact that the last two years of the elementary school as now conducted are in need of thoroughgoing revision if the time of the pupils is to be economically and advantageously employed.

Kansas Decision on Textbooks

The state of Kansas has for some time been listening to discussions for and against the practice of certain school boards which have neglected to obey the textbook law in that state. The law is very rigid in its prescription of books. These books must be definitely adopted by the board and must be of a certain stipulated price. The practice of certain boards of education has been to introduce supplementary books in different subjects and under this guise to displace some of the cheaper and, on the whole, less satisfactory books which are required under the state adoption. The case has been carried from court to court until finally the Supreme Court was reached. This court holds that it is illegal to use supplementary readers. The state, according to the decision, must name all the books to be used in the schools of the state and fixes the prices at which they shall be sold. The law must be interpreted to mean that no other books shall be used in the schools. It is alleged by the plaintiff and admitted by the board in the test case that supplementary books have been used in certain of the lower grades. The board urged that the children had completed the books prescribed by the state first and that the other books were found necessary in order that the work might continue. The court, however, finds that the practice of introducing these supplementary books is contrary to the letter and spirit of the law, and consequently holds that an injunction shall be issued against the use of such supplementary books. The rest of the country will look for the consequences of this ruling with great interest. If the law is of such character that it is impossible under it to introduce supplementary reading-material in the grades, it is probably better that the meaning of that law should be clearly brought out in order that the law itself may be modified. In the meantime the teachers of Kansas will have the hearty sympathy of educational people everywhere. To work in

schools without suitable textbook helps is like trying to conduct a modern business establishment without telephones or elevators. It can be done, but not with advantage to the business.

Cost of Textbooks in Michigan Cities

The *Journal* of Lansing, Mich., has been carrying on a campaign of education of the people of that city in favor of free textbooks. The following table, which is quoted from the issue of March 15, may be of interest to those who are gathering information regarding the actual cost of textbooks.

The state *Journal* has gone into the question of the average cost per year for each child in cities using free textbooks. It has received communications direct from members of the school boards in these cities and these show that the average cost in free textbooks cities is 55 cents.

A table follows which sets forth the average cost a year for each child:

Battle Creek, all grades	$0.66
Negaunee, all grades	.48
Flint, all grades	.75
Holland, eight grades	.50
Owosso, eight grades	.43
Muskegon, eight grades	.40
Saginaw, all grades	.53
Sault Ste. Marie, all grades	.90
Grand Haven, eight grades	.33
Cheboygan, eight grades	.43
Alma, all grades	.69
Menominee, eight grades	.56
Detroit, eight grades	.40
Average cost	$0.55

The general problem of textbooks is under vigorous discussion in all parts of the country. It is said that the book companies are beginning to feel the effects of state legislation which provides for the local printing of schoolbooks. The labor unions have taken a great deal of interest in the general problem of the making of schoolbooks and many citizens have written pro and con with regard to the desirability of furnishing textbooks at public expense. There seems to be no doubt in the minds of most of the editorial writers that the cost of textbooks is a subject of large importance in public-school economy.

Minneapolis Inquiry into School Elimination

A committee of citizens of the city of Minneapolis have made a study of the reasons for withdrawals from the public schools of that city. A number of matters of general importance are brought out in the tables given in the report, but the present reference to this report must be limited to a single table.

TABLE NUMBER 7

REASONS FOR LEAVING SCHOOL

Aggregate Family Income	Ill-Health	Had to Go to Work	Child's Desire to Earn Money	Kept Vacation Work	Disliked or Not Interested in School	Trouble with Teacher	Failure to Pass	Further Public School Not Worth	Total
No one earning	0 0	9 4 3 * 1 0	1 *	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	17
$18–24	0 0	7 1 * 1	0 0	0 0	1 *	0 0	0 0	0 0	9
$25–29	0 0	6 1 1 * 1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	10
$30–39	0 0	6 1 * 1	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	8
$40–49	1 1 1 0	11 1 * 0	0 0	0 0	2 * 2 0	1 0	0 0	2 0	21
Independent small income	1 3 1 0	2 4 2 * 1 0	1 1 1 * 1 0	0 0	1 2 1 * 1 0	2 1	0 0	3 2 * 0	26
$50–74	2 3 * 0	19 2 3 * 1 0	3 2 5 * 1 0	2 1 * 1 0	8 2 8 * 1 0	0 0	1 0	2 2 * 1	65
$75–99	1 *	6 6 3 * 1 0	1 2 * 0	1 1 1 0	3 3 7 * 1 0	1 1 1 * 1 0	0 0	1 6 1 * 1 0	45
$100–149	1 1 1 * 1 0	4 6 8 * 1 0	2 2 3 * 1 0	1 1 1 0	5 12 23 * 1 0	2 0	2 1	9 3 7 * 1 0	92
$150	1 2 1 0	4 2 3 * 1 0	1 0	0 0	2 2 2 * 1 0	1 0	1 0	4 1 2 * 1 0	33
Independent large income	2 0	0 0	2 1 * 1	1 1	6 3 4 * 1 0	1 1 * 0	0 0	1 4 1 0	26
Total	20	125	29	9	104	11	4	50	352
Percent of 352	5.7	35.5	8.2	2.6	29.6	3.1	1.1	14.2	

NOTE.—*–14 years. 1–15 years. 0–16 years.

Comment is not necessary. The vivid presentation of the educational problem which this table makes justifies the energy spent in the investigation. It is understood that the Board of Education intends to follow up the matter with an inquiry of its own.

The Progress of Compulsory Education

The state of North Carolina has adopted a compulsory education act and has lengthened the minimum school term to six months. This leaves only five states in the Union without compulsory education.

Supervision by Grades Rather than by Schools

The city of East St. Louis has been trying for a little over a year an experiment in school administration. Instead of leaving the supervision of schools to principals in the various buildings, supervisors were appointed to organize the work of certain grades throughout the whole city. One of these supervisors was given charge of the seventh and eighth grades, another of the sixth and fifth, another of the fourth and third, and still another of the first two grades. The principals of the buildings are put in charge of only the strictly local necessities, such as discipline, and matters relating to building supplies. They have no supervision over the course of study or of the work of the teachers in the lower grades. They are given instructorial charge of the highest grade, and devote their whole time to teaching. The plan was adopted in order to render more uniform the work of the different schools throughout the city. Prior to the adoption of the plan some schools had been notably more efficient than others. It was thought that the work could be brought to a high level in all of the schools by cultivating a more immediate interrelation between like grades. Furthermore, the plan seemed to be financially much more economical, because a single supervisor could do the work of several principals.

The plan has been in operation for a year and two months. The discussion of this plan has been so vigorous and the objections to it so strong that it has become an issue in the present election of the school board. The objections which are raised to the plan call attention to the fact that the amount of supervision which is given to

the different supervisors is very unequal. The primary supervisor has charge of nearly three times as many teachers as the supervisor of the upper grades. Furthermore, it is pointed out that the pupil's transition from grade to grade is rendered difficult by the lack of common aims and modes of organization in the different parts of a single school. The supervisors meet once a week for general conferences, but each one has his own views with regard to the organization of his part of the school. Further than this, it is pointed out that the supervisors have no such opportunity to become acquainted with individual children as would the principal of the building. The child's progress through the school is therefore dependent on the judgment of a number of different teachers and supervisors who come in contact with him for only a short period at a time.

The matter is likely to be settled before this announcement appears in the *Elementary School Teacher*. The record of the experiment is, however, of interest whatever the final outcome in East St. Louis. Similar modes of organization have undoubtedly been tried in other quarters. It would be of interest to learn whether the supervisory plan has succeeded and been retained in any school system.

Educating the People in Domestic Matters

During the month of February last the department of home economics of the University of Texas held an open school of home economics for the women of that state. Lectures, demonstrations, and exhibits constituted the program of this week's session of the special school. The work was open without entrance requirements, age limits, or examinations, and emphasized the economic, hygienic, and aesthetic aspects of food, shelter, and clothing in their connection with the home and institutions directly related to the home.

A number of lecturers of national importance contributed to the program, and the regular members of the department of domestic economy of the university gave courses and demonstrations. Besides the lectures there was an exhibit in the rooms of the Domestic Science Building and in a tent erected for this purpose. The exhibit was arranged and classified under three divisions: food, clothing, and shelter.

In the food exhibit the subject was treated from the point of view of the municipality as well as of the individual. With a quart of milk as a text the process of procuring this important product was traced back to its source, showing side by side sanitary and unsanitary methods of handling. In this same exhibit also were shown sample nursing bottles, those of a type easy to clean and others dangerous because of the difficulty of keeping them fit for use. Dietary charts showing typical meals for children and adults of various ages and under varying conditions of labor were on exhibition. Charts showing good and bad buying of materials were among the most important of the exhibits.

In the textile exhibit appeared material from other institutions which had loaned charts and other materials for this purpose. Under the head of shelter were given models showing how the problems of sanitation, comfort, and convenience have been solved in the building of houses and in the carrying-out of municipal improvements and improvements in rural districts.

The attendance on this week of home economics was from all parts of the state. Women's clubs sent their delegates, schools sent their home economics teachers, and many housewives throughout the state sought this opportunity of becoming acquainted with improved methods of domestic economy.

Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools

From San Francisco, Cal., comes an account of the activities of the Cosmopolitan Educational Association. This association met on March 6 to discuss the teaching of foreign languages in elementary schools. The report made by the officers of the association showed that over 16,000 citizens had signified their readiness, in answer to written requests, to send their children to schools where they can be trained in either elementary French, German, Italian, or Spanish.

There are two general reasons why the introduction of foreign languages into the elementary schools is likely to become a topic of increasing importance. First, practical conditions of commercial life are driving all those who are interested in foreign trade to see the importance of at least a reading-knowledge of some foreign language. In the second place, it is becoming increasingly obvious

that the early years of childhood are the best years for a cultivation of a knowledge of a foreign language. Children take up the pronunciation and the grammatical forms in the early years much more readily than they will in later years when their habits of English expression are much more fixed.

The activities of the Cosmopolitan Education Association show that the issue can be made a practical issue and that the purposes of this society can find a large support if properly presented.

Indiana Legislation on Industrial Education and Truancy

The legislature of Indiana recently passed a very comprehensive law on industrial education. This law provides that a deputy state superintendent of public instruction is to be appointed by the state superintendent with the approval of the State Board of Education. The duty of this deputy shall be to take charge of vocational work in the state. Under the law he may organize elementary agriculture in the grades in all towns and township schools. He may organize elementary industrial work in the grades of all city and town schools and elementary domestic science shall be taught in the grades of all the schools. The State Board of Education is to prepare a course of study for such work. After September 1, 1915, all teachers required to teach in the above-named subjects shall have passed an examination and secured a license in such subjects.

Further steps in a similar direction were taken in the section which provides that when a county makes an annual appropriation of $1,500 and when twenty or more residents of a county who are actively interested in agriculture shall file a petition with the County Board of Education for a county agent together with a deposit of $500, the County Board of Education shall apply to Purdue University for the appointment of a county agent, whose appointment is made subject to the approval of the County Board of Education and the State Board of Education. The state is authorized to pay one-half of the salary of this county agent.

These enactments help to furnish the machinery for a thorough organization of industrial education in the state of Indiana in immediate relation to the work of the public school. The influence of these various special officers will undoubtedly be felt in remodel-

ing the course of study in the subjects which are usually taken up in the grades as well as in the special industrial lines.

The Indiana legislature also adopted a truancy law which provides that children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen must attend school if they have not completed the fifth-grade work. Such a law as this recognizes the fact that the usual method of defining the age limit of elementary-school work is not altogether satisfactory. It is probably the beginning of a clearer recognition in all of the states that legislation shall be drafted in such a way as to secure a certain number of grades of training for each pupil. If the common form of compulsory legislation is intended to carry the pupil through the eight grades of the elementary school, it is, of course, a decided failure. The Indiana law is very low in its prescription of the fifth grade as the minimum that will be accepted for a pupil. Later legislation will undoubtedly bring this to the sixth or even to later years of the elementary school.

Normal Course in the Montessori Method

Information begins to come back from Rome with regard to the success of the courses organized by Dr. Montessori and the probabilities of an invasion of this country by a number of persons fully trained to introduce this work into the United States. We are now told that seventy teachers from all parts of the world have enrolled in these courses, having been permitted to do so by Dr. Montessori. Over fifty of these are Americans. Two American teachers have gone so far as to organize at Rome a separate school for English-speaking children, which they will conduct under the personal supervision of Dr. Montessori.

The normal course will cover a period of four months. In these courses the students will have the opportunity of hearing several lectures a week by Dr. Montessori, and there will be daily practical training and observation in a school which she is maintaining especially for the purpose of training these students. We are told that some American teachers have been in Italy for a year studying Italian in order that they may "personally understand" the lectures and explanations. Presumably the other teachers will get some indirect understanding of what is done, and it is to be hoped

that a normal course of four months will give them a thorough grasp upon the methods of this new treatment of young children. The time has passed in the United States when any great system of education would venture to launch itself through a four months' course of normal training, but doubtless this new method can be sufficiently understood in that period—at least to permit the fifty American teachers to start institutions in the United States on their return.

Already there are indications that subsidies will be available for these teachers when they come back, and we shall undoubtedly be instructed through articles and discussions, once more reviving the interest which has during the last few months been somewhat less keen than it was a year ago.

Congress on School Hygiene

Attention has once before been called to the meeting of the International Congress on School Hygiene to be held in Buffalo during the last week of August of this year. The prospects of a large and important meeting at that time grow with the development of the program and the registration of those who are to be in attendance. The Bureau of Education at Washington is taking an active part in the distribution of information regarding this meeting. All teachers and supervisors interested in this phase of school work should secure this information by addressing the bureau.

The Ohio School Inquiry

The following editorial clipped from the *Journal* of Hamilton, Ohio, is very typical of the discussions which usually attach to a school inquiry.

THE INVESTIGATION OF THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM BY DISINTERESTED EXPERTS

In steering clear of the maelstrom of public-school politics and factions and selecting persons not actively engaged in the state educational system for the public-school survey commission, Governor Cox is sure to obtain a disinterested report of conditions in this most important subject. A disinterested report is always preferable to one that is drawn up by one who has investigated his own work.

The high ideals of the state executive in this matter were further reflected in the caliber of the appointees. Representative Oliver J. Z. Thatcher, of

Wilmington, is a man of scholarly attainments augmented by years of practical experience as a successful educator in one of the country's greatest universities —that at Chicago. He is now living in retirement on a farm in Clinton County. Miss Edith Campbell, an instructor of economics in the University of Cincinnati, is a thorough student of all things that pertain to education, and she is said to be one of the best-equipped women in the country. The administrative details of the commission will be looked after by William L. Allendorf, a banker and successful business man of Sandusky. He always has been interested in civic, social, and educational problems and he has kept pace with advanced thought.

The commission will have the services of a corps of experts, experienced in such surveys, which will be provided by the Municipal Research Bureau of New York City.

A review of what has been done in this connection discloses that the governor has acquitted himself with distinction. It is one of the most important undertakings ever launched by an Ohio executive.

This clipping shows several interesting aspects of the Ohio situation. First, note the personal qualifications of the judges. Second, note that the New York Bureau, well known in connection with the New York Inquiry, is here to do the real work. Finally, note the only matter on which extended comment is here offered. This article shows that there is a very clear assumption on the part of the ordinary editorial writer that there is something wrong with the schools which cannot properly be judged except by a wholly impartial jury. There seems to be an assumption that the expert educator would gloss over a situation that is corrupt or even criminal. This attitude on the part of the public is undoubtedly due to the fact that educators have not up to this time succeeded in explaining clearly what they are undertaking to the citizens who support the schools. It is time that some energy of school officers be devoted to the task of giving publicity to the achievements of the school and to its purposes. School people also should be entirely willing to face mistakes and failures. There can be no doubt at all that there are elements in our school situation which can be improved and corrected. Very frequently the public ought to share with the school officer the blame where blame is to be attached to any school mistakes. At all events, this general attitude that the school is on the defensive and that somebody must judge of its doings who will be candid and frank rather than those who are

intimately interested, reveals a situation which should be cured by more intimate contact between the educational expert and the people interested in the development of the school.

The Reorganized State Association in Illinois

The Illinois Teachers' Association has been organized by the federation of all the sectional associations. For some years the sectional associations have been, in point of enrolment and in program, of greater importance than the central annual meeting of the state association. At the last meeting of each of these sectional associations votes were passed in favor of federation, also providing by the adoption of higher membership fees for the support of the central association, so that it is now possible to employ a permanent secretary and issue a monthly bulletin dealing with matters of general interest to all of the teachers in the state. The first bulletin, entitled *The Illinois Teacher*, appeared on April 1. It contained some discussion of the organization which is to publish it, some discussion of the vocational bills which are being taken up in the state, and also other matters of legislation, especially the two-mill tax. There is also a brief statement regarding the normal schools of the state. The news items are rather meager in this first issue of *The Illinois Teacher*, but evidently a medium has been established whereby the members of the various associations throughout the state are to receive ultimately information with regard to legislation and other current educational matters of general importance. It is to be hoped that this new organization will see the possibility of preparing a list of all the teachers in the state and carrying on other activities which will demonstrate the feasibility of a central organization which shall represent much more adequately than most teachers' organizations do the interests of all of the teachers throughout the state.

DRAMATIZATION IN HISTORY TEACHING

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We hope for a steady and healthy increase in dramatization in and out of school. We ask its promoters to prepare themselves in order to see and secure real values. This can be done by thoughtful analysis of results of certain things. For instance, much loose talk about dramatization does not put it in a school. Much play, with marching, singing, posing, may never total dramatization. There are dramatic elements which, when properly combined, form the true dramatization. Some of these every teacher knows. What the teacher lacks may be his judgment of these combined elements. These elements may be color, form, action, sound, light, suggestion, thought, contrast, conflict, and so on to the end of a long list. The problem is how to get an effective combination. I would suggest the following essentials.

1. *Motif and effect.*—Every story and picture has one effect upon us stronger than all others. Before we can dramatize it, we should decide what this leading effect is to be and plan to secure it.

2. *Unity.*—If the effect is worth giving, it is worth giving in its full power. Hence, we should study to remove everything, no matter how good in itself, that lessens the one effect we seek.

3. *Harmony.*—We may have unity in one aspect and lack of harmony in others. For instance, we may have the three fates grouped showing unity of idea, but so dressed as to promote strife among the colors.

4. *Spirit.*—"The letter killeth, the spirit giveth life." Dramatization is to touch life with life so that it goes forth more lively than before, and so less conquerable by forces of evil effect. To select the one spirit in a story, episode, or noble personality, the one which has the life-giving touch, is to be dramatically skilled and endowed. Yet this skill and endowment can be had by intelligent searching, reflection, decision; searching especially in the

world's storehouse of dramatic experience, the works of undisputed genius, and the world of human activity around us.

With these essentials in mind for future study and application, let us pass to consider forms of dramatization in teaching. I think we can easily divide them into formal and informal groups.

The formal group will contain plays (professional and amateur), dialogues, pantomimes, tableaux, pageants, folk dances (and other group dancing), marching, singing, especially antiphonal in rendering. Let us consider each briefly from the school standpoint.

THE FORMAL GROUP

Plays.—Plays are, for the most part, found in the secondary school, though playlets, simple and good, are occasionally produced by grammar-school pupils at fairs, sales, and celebrations.

Dialogues.—This is one of the oldest essentials of the drama but dialogue is something more than exchange of talk. Dialogue has all four essentials; unity, harmony, spirit, effect, and must keep them all appealing to the listener. In the following dialogue, often used in grade one, one can almost feel the values approach zero they become so infinitesimally small.

The Little Red Hen: "Who will eat my bread?"
The Duck: "I will."
The Goose: "I will."
The Turkey: "I will."
The Little Red Hen: "I will not give you any. I will eat it myself."

It would seem desirable to select a tale of more substance to display the riches of dramatization and to "stir the souls of pupils to appreciation." That the child would prefer to call himself a duck or a goose to say those words over and over in the reading-class, is probably true, but that is small praise.

Pantomimes.—The pantomime is not used nearly enough. It calls for action, expression of thought and feeling, without words. Thus it calls for keenest attention, analysis, and conveyance of thought. It *must* bring out the points or the exercise fails. If we take the dramatic tale of the little red hen and throw away the words and have it silently acted with facial and other expressions both actor and observer *must* see the situation, the appeal, and the droll, although selfish, climax.

The pantomime reveals clearly the good dramatic values of a tale, and often gets rid of a load of silly words. Words should be of dramatic value, but very often they are not, and only hide other values that do exist.

Tableaux.—The tableau is one of the most formal and difficult kinds of dramatization. It demands all four essential qualities: unity, harmony, spirit, effect, and in addition much of proportion, grace, color, and suggestive symbol. The fact that it is still-life makes it very difficult to render and not so satisfactory to children, who like activity; and the fact it is so rich in possible color, form, symbol-effect, makes it almost impossible in the short time allowed for preparation. It is not to be wondered at that it is not a regular part of our school activity. When used, it is very costly in time, nervous energy, artistic taste, imagination, and often clearly shows its points of failure. When well done, it is beautiful, instructive, satisfying.

It seems a wiser procedure to use a more informal kind of tableau such as children may devise, and, while getting the full effect of their analysis and impression, allow the fun of the thing to atone for the many accompanying faults and incongruities. *In fact, here lies the benefit of the whole matter of dramatization; namely, in letting the children work out their own dramatic sensations and impressions with childish freedom.* The teacher introduces her higher aims and principles in a pleasant offer of suggestive experiment.

Large, overloaded, inharmonious scenes may dazzle for the instant but they have very little real value in the development of those who look on, or of those who take part. The simpler, the more natural, the more self-expressed the tableau is, the better it is for the development of perception and the refining of taste.

Pageants.—I like to use this word to describe a scene which has movement, more or less vocal expression, and several parts joined to make a whole. Others use the word to mean a spectacle. As I have used it, it becomes the great *composite* of the types of dramatization already described. As a composite, little or much of any type may be used. Hence it can be made to fit any dramatic situation. I urge its use by teachers and others. Having motion,

it is freer in its execution, therefore easier for the participants and more enjoyable. It can be used without platforms, curtains, or scenery (although these add to the effectiveness); hence it is perfectly adapted to any school. In the larger schoolhouse, the dressing-room with the corridor gives ample room for its display. In the country one-room schoolhouse, out-of-doors affords the most desirable of all effects. One can wait for favorable weather without disturbance of any other school appointments.

In history or literature, although the course of study is crowded and teachers are busy, each month may bring out a topic for a pageant. Let the children select what they prefer and decide how they can show it. When these suggestions of theirs are assorted and arranged, it will be found they can be used grouped in a procession. The teacher and pupils can plan together and carry out the pageant in details—as to music, marching, placards, symbols, costumes, etc. Let the teacher keep the expectant attitude, and she will get some surprises, some of them surprisingly good. Prescribed dramatics will often fail, while those spontaneously and naturally produced will grow in quality and popularity. After some experience, children can be trusted to select the essential picture-stories from their history and literature, and for these they may devise pageants as fast as they occur. Materials can mostly be brought from homes, sometimes made, seldom bought. All three of these ways are excellent in their effects. This monthly exhibit may be added to from time to time until, at the close of the year, the pupils will have seen pass before them the year's story, not once, but several times; some parts always new; all parts increasingly effective.

Here is a way *to review and drill on essentials in a thorough, clear, delightful way.* It is understandable. It has become a part of the child's possession, for he has created it; he has seen it. It is a moving-picture and a living-picture show in which every pupil joins his own life in explaining and picturing the life of the past out of which our present life comes. This is as near the ideal education as we can come. How unlike the literal words the pupil might have remembered instead!

To illustrate the above, I here outline a year's pageant for the

seventh grade, which we call "The Meaning of America." The parade formed in a lower corridor, marched up and into the room to lively music. The divisions came in the following order.

I. THE FIRST INHABITANTS:

An Indian group in costume with appropriate symbols of Indian life, as hunter, warrior, fisher, child-life, etc.

II. THE COMING OF THE SPANIARD (in these subdivisions):

Military explorers, and enslaved Indians, in symbolic costume, and bearing gold and silver ore; palm leaves, the banana, the cocoanut are to symbolize the nature of the region occupied.

An outline map, showing a colored area which the Spanish occupied, may also be carried.

Also placards reading, "No Industry"; "No Schools"; "No Town-meeting"; "Monarchy"; "Religious Intolerance," should appear.

III. THE COMING OF THE FRENCH (in these subdivisions):

The French and Indian trappers, with pack, traps, furs, canoes, and other symbols.

The missionary, in religious garb.

The soldiers, with the despotic governor, in military garb.

Branches of birch, maple, pine, fir, with snow to suggest the climate of the region occupied.

An outline map, showing in color the area France occupied, may be carried.

Placards reading, "No Public School"; "No Self-Government"; "Religious Zeal"; "Benevolent Despotism," are shown.

IV. THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH (in these subdivisions):

A. *Virginia:*

Gentlemen, and convicts, with John Smith as leader.

The later Cavaliers, and Puritans in Virginia, in contrasted costume.

Pocahontas, and other Indians, and John Rolfe.

Specimens of tobacco and corn are carried, symbolizing the important products.

Slaves (men, women, and children), with hoe, or basket, or other symbol.

Placards reading, "The First Colony"; "The First Legislature in America"; "The First Negro Slaves in America," are carried.

B. *Massachusetts:*

The Puritans and Pilgrims (men, women, and children) in suggestive garb, carrying the Bible, and the spelling-book, as symbols.

Indians with their corn, beans, furs, fish, as symbols of their industries.

Small dishes of sand, pebbles, and living twigs of native trees, specimens of native flowers are carried to suggest the nature of the region occupied.

Small bits of wood, miniature ships, water-wheels, fish-lines are to suggest products and industries.

Placards reading, "Self-Government"; "Religious Freedom"; "Religious Tolerance"; "The Public School," are carried.

C. *The Quakers* (in symbolic attire):

Pictures of Quakers may be carried; also a map showing the location of Pennsylvania.

Group of Quakers and Indians, mingling in a friendly way.

William Penn, impersonated by some pupil.

Placards reading, "Pennsylvania or Penn's Woods"; "Philadelphia, Place of Brotherly Love," and others, appear.

V. THE COMING OF THE DUTCH:

A group of Dutch men, women, and children in Dutch attire, Dutch fur merchants, and Indians with furs. Peter Stuyvesant is impersonated.

VI. COLONIAL LIFE, WITH SUGGESTIVE SYMBOLS:

The Colonial minister, doctor, lawyer, school teacher.

The Colonial knitter, cobbler, blacksmith, boat-builder.

Pictures of the Colonial houses, ships, wagons, etc., can be carried.

The slave-driver, the slave, the Virginia gentleman and lady.

VII. REVOLUTIONARY HEROES; IMPERSONATED BY PUPILS:

Washington, Lafayette, Samuel Adams, Franklin, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, and others.

(Pupils to select their own hero and the symbols which will make them known.) Each may carry a card with some famous saying by the man they represent; or carry a portrait of the hero.

Also appear placards, reading, "E Pluribus Unum"; "We must hang together or be hanged separately"; "Taxation without representation is tyranny," and other quotations pupils may select.

A group of Minute-men, in symbolic attire, complete the division.

VIII. THE CONSTITUTION:

A group suggesting the President, Congress, and the Supreme Court, to be impersonated. Another group bears placards, reading, "To form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity," and other quotations, giving tribute to the Constitution, to be selected by the pupils themselves.

IX. INVENTIONS:

Miniatures, *constructed by the pupils*, to be borne in the processions; steamboat, canal-boat, locomotive, telegraph, telephone, electric light, etc.

X. PRODUCTS THAT HAVE MADE US GREAT:

Pupils to devise simple exhibits and carry them in the procession. Specimens of coal, iron, petroleum, gold, silver, copper, etc. Specimens of apples, peaches, oranges, grapes, etc. Specimens of beef, butter, wool, leather, etc.

Placards giving statistics, or historic facts, about the products may be carried.

XI. THE PIONEERS:

The trapper and hunter, the settler and farmer, the herdsman, the miner, mountain guide, Indian guide, the preacher and teacher, to be impersonated with suggestive symbols.

XII. AMERICAN IDEALS (in symbolic costume):

Liberty, Justice, Law, Religion.

Here are twelve numbers and we have covered suggestively only about half of our American history, touching only the essentials. The eighth grade can work out the rest.

Of course the above is simply suggestive to the pupil. Any teacher may choose her own topics and symbolize them in her own way.

The one important thing is that *each pupil think out what each group and symbol means—what the whole together means.*

It is to be noted that very little *complete* costuming is called for. Much use is made of the *suggestive*, the *symbol*, the *idea*, rather than the complete picture.

Songs, marches, and dances.—The three remaining topics of dramatic value need but little comment. All three in themselves are dramatic in spirit and expression, and are the oldest accompaniments of other dramatic expressions which we have. As accompaniments their use has been somewhat limited. When one recalls the large part the Greek chorus had in the Greek play, we get a glimpse of what we can do with singing, marching, dancing in our dramatizing in the schools. In expressing the religious, warlike, or simply festive life of a people, we cannot afford to neglect them.

Take the Indian. Note how the song and dance enters into his war and worship festivals. The military spirit has in all times been expressed more or less in the measured tread and regular movements of the body, especially when in company with others. Hence, the *clan spirit* as well as the *national spirit* is especially well expressed by marches. Much varied effect can be obtained by group-marching in all sorts of combinations. Dancing, folk-dancing particularly, is having a revival. It is well if we see in it

expression of an earlier *folk-feeling*, not a show by some of our twentieth-century children.

The use of the dance, the march, the song, not *as dances, songs, and marches*, but *as expressions of social pictures* and *social spirits of a people or a period*, will prove very profitable to a thoughtful teacher in the development of dramatization.

THE INFORMAL GROUP

We now take up the less formal ways of dramatizing. Under this head I mention, first, simple informal dramatization, as in reading in the lower grades. There is little or no preparation. "I am he." "I am it." Dramatization has begun. This is spontaneously expressed in words from the lesson and in such facial expression, gesture, and posture as the child is moved to use. This is simple and excellent. The first value to secure in it is the *sure and real identification*, in the child's mind, *of the character and himself*. Of course full expression of what the child has seen, felt, thought about the part is much to be desired.

I would call attention, in the second place, to the value in the *dramatic sentence*. We are all aware of the fun in a single word, as in punning. Similarly, we often find the whole situation pictured for us in a single sentence. This, for example, is found in the really good short yarn or anecdote. It is also occasionally found in the sayings of small children in the home, and the answers of pupils in schools. One can collect many in the school year. They are so small we usually let them come either unnoticed or unvalued. Yet they are, perhaps, the diamonds among dramatic values. It is these we should prize *as beginnings* and which we should develop into a considerable dramatic expression. The teacher can do much to encourage this by showing dramatic situations by her own use of language. In her own matter-of-fact questions, she can, if she wishes, stimulate dramatic seeing and feeling. Let me illustrate.

The lesson is on the discovery of America.

Question: "What Asiatic products are mentioned in connection with trade routes?"

Here the dramatic value is zero. Let us revise it.

"If you were an Arab, what animal would you use on the desert? What articles would you load on his back? Where

would you go to get these articles? How would you dress in that climate? What would you take with you to trade for these new products? Why would you want to trade anyway?"

Notice, by impersonation, and vivid mental picturing, and actual *imaginative thinking*, we have got at the heart of the whole matter, and what is more, it will not be forgotten. Thousands of similar situations are found throughout the history.

The Constitution is considered by most to be the driest, hardest topic to be found in history for upper grades. Yet it has been proved that by impersonation of the men in the Constitutional Convention, and by *imaginative* travel to the very halls in Philadelphia, and by working out these ideas in actual discussion in a mimic convention, a dry topic becomes a most interesting, helpful, and lasting one.

The last informal item I would suggest is the sentence-picture of natural scenery that surrounds the incident or the fact. Let me illustrate this. Take a lesson on the French in America.

Question: "Who founded Quebec, and when?"

Answer: "Quebec was founded in 1608 by Champlain."

Here the dramatic value is zero; the history value, ditto. Let me revise it.

"Here is a picture of a kind of ship they used about 1600. Here is another picture of a man named Samuel Champlain. Will you be Champlain? Now, if you sailed up this river, how many miles would you go? [Measure by scale of miles on the map.] How long do you *think* it would take you on a modern steamer? If it were the winter time, how would the country look? Were there forests, or prairies, along the banks? What kind of trees would you see? When you planned to build Quebec, did you build it on sandy shore? or prairie? or on a cliff? How does Quebec look today? Look at these pictures of Quebec. When did you found Quebec? Why?"

These are suggestions merely to invite teachers to enter a large field and, for the most part, unexplored. The pleasure of original pioneering, sometimes called initiative, is one essential to vigorous teaching. It adds the touch of eager leadership, to displace much driving of the herd, rendered so prevalent today by the machinery of supervision and instruction.

PRACTICE TEACHING IN MODEL SCHOOLS

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In 1909 the accrediting committee of the California State Board of Education sent a questionnaire to every state normal school in the United States. Among the questions asked were a number concerning the practice teaching and observation work required of students before graduation. The data obtained from these replies came into the hands of the writer through the courtesy of Dr. M. E. Dailey, president of the State Normal School, San Jose, Cal., who was a member of that committee. The facts pertaining to practice teaching and observation work are here compiled and briefly interpreted with the hope that they may stimulate further inquiry concerning current methods in normal schools.

RELATION OF PRACTICE TEACHING TO COURSES IN METHODS

From the replies to the first question, "How much time intervenes between the study of methods and the practice teaching?" we find the following facts: (1) Practice teaching follows the courses in methods immediately in 47 of the 115 state normal schools replying, or in 40 per cent of them. This group includes all schools in which the student-teacher begins his practice teaching immediately upon the completion of the work in methods. In many normal schools the courses in methods are completed in the Junior year and practice teaching comes in the Senior year. Other schools have the courses in methods in both the Junior and the Senior years, with practice teaching in the Senior year only. Courses in general methods as well as in special methods precede the practice teaching in all schools of this group. (2) Practice teaching is taken simultaneously with methods in 28 of the 115 schools, or in 24 per cent of those replying. (3) Less than one term of twelve weeks intervenes between the study of methods and practice teaching in 12 normal schools, or in 10 per cent of the group studied.

(4) The study of methods precedes practice teaching by more than one term of twelve weeks, and less than three such terms, in 14 schools, or 11 per cent. (5) More than one year intervenes between the courses in methods and the practice teaching in but one institution. Fourteen per cent of the schools wrote the vague answer, "varies," and are, therefore, not considered in the above figures.

The two prevailing tendencies are, first, to have practice teaching taken simultaneously with methods, and second, to have practice teaching follow immediately the courses in methods. The second plan is the more common.

AMOUNT OF PRACTICE TEACHING REQUIRED

The next question asked is: "How much practice teaching is required of each student before graduation?" The replies reveal a wider range of variation than would seem possible in institutions all maintained for the one purpose of training teachers for the elementary schools. Pupil-teachers are required to teach anywhere from two weeks to two years, the length of time varying with the size of the training school, the number of student-teachers, and the pedagogical view of the administrative officers in charge.

The replies to this question were given by different schools in varying units, such as weeks, months, hours, and terms, making the computation of averages difficult. This may be illustrated by quoting at random the following answers: "one hundred and twenty hours"; "five months"; "one period a day for twenty weeks"; "two terms of room teaching"; "one-fifth of the course." I have managed to use most of these answers by reducing the time given in each case to school terms of twelve weeks with one period of forty to forty-five minutes of teaching each day.

The following replies are from schools requiring less than one term of teaching: "four periods per week every two weeks for one year"; "twenty full days"; "one-fifth of the course"; "six weeks"; "part of the time for six weeks." The remaining schools are divisible into three groups with respect to the length of time required for practice teaching: (1) those schools requiring less than two terms of twelve weeks each, one period daily, but more than one such term; there are 10 institutions in this group; (2)

those schools requiring at least two terms or twenty-four weeks, one period daily; there are 42 institutions in this group; (3) those schools requiring the equivalent of one year, that is, three terms, one period daily; there are 66 institutions in this group.

To summarize: 53 per cent of the state normal schools replying require the equivalent of three terms or one full year of practice teaching; 34 per cent, the equivalent of two terms; 8 per cent, the equivalent of one term, and 5 per cent less than one term. There are possibly two institutions that require more than one year of practice teaching. The median institution requires three terms or one year.

SCHOOLS IN WHICH PRACTICE TEACHING IS REQUIRED

The third question is: "Is any or all of the practice teaching done in schools other than practice schools under your supervision?" In 95 of the 117 replying all the practice teaching is done in a practice school connected with the normal school. Twenty-two institutions use local town and city schools. When outside schools are used, the practice teaching is almost without exception supervised by the faculty of the normal school. There is only one normal school in the list in which student-teachers are allowed to teach in outside schools under outside supervision alone. In 10 of the schools studied, practice teaching is required in city and town schools as well as in the training school more immediately under the control and supervision of the normal school. Usually practice teaching in outside schools is merely a temporary makeshift necessary until a training school can be established.

GRADES IN WHICH PRACTICE TEACHING IS REQUIRED

The fourth question asked is: "In how many grades does each student-teacher do practice teaching?" A number of general answers were received, for example: "several"; "no specific number"; "varies"; "three to eight"; "all possible"; "usually in one department." However, most of the answers were more specific. I have recorded them in the following table. This table shows the number of grades in which students are required to teach.

Number of Grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9*
Number of schools	3	10	24	20	3	7	2	15	3
Percentage of total schools replying	2	9	23	19	2	6	2	14	2

*These numbers do not refer to the grade, as the ninth grade, but to the number of different grades in which each student is required to teach during his practice experience. Thus, 3 schools require teaching in only one grade; 10 in two grades; 24 in three grades, etc.

The range is from one to nine grades. Which means that in some normal schools, pupil-teachers are required to teach in only one grade, while in other schools they are required to teach in all nine grades. Eight schools require teaching in the primary, intermediate, and grammar departments. A number of indefinite answers were received which are here eliminated. Evidently the most common practice is to require teaching in three or four different grades.

SUBJECTS IN WHICH PRACTICE TEACHING IS REQUIRED

Question five, "In what subjects does each student do practice teaching?" is closely related to the preceding one. The following answers are quoted as exceptional: "varies, but must have one of music, nature-study, drawing, or manual training"; "four to six branches"; "nearly all"; "no regulation"; "any two, in all but special"; "several"; "all possible"; "determined by the supervisor of practice"; "six selected." The remaining replies I have listed under four groups:

1. Those requiring all subjects: 58 institutions;
2. Those requiring any three, preferably one in each of the three departments: 9 institutions;
3. Those leaving it to the option of the student and supervisor: 9 institutions;
4. Those specifically indicating the subjects: 12 schools.

Eleven of the 12 schools that specifically answer this question require arithmetic; 10 require reading; 6 history; 6 music; 5 language; 5 geography; 4 writing; 4 grammar; 3 nature-study; 2 drawing; 2 manual training; one domestic science, and one agriculture.

Again, 2 of the 12 schools in question require practice teaching in seven different subjects; 4 require practice teaching in six subjects, 2 in five; one in four; 2 in three, and one in two.

These institutions require students to teach an average of five different subjects during their course. And the six subjects taught in their order of preference are: arithmetic, reading, language, history, music, and geography. These figures must not be taken too seriously, however. The reader must remember that we are arguing upon the basis of what prevails in only 12 institutions. But I find upon checking back that these 12 schools are among the very best in the list when all points are considered. They represent the very best practice that appears in the whole group of normal schools.

THE AMOUNT AND KIND OF OBSERVATION WORK REQUIRED

The sixth question concerns the observation work required of practice teachers: "Do students observe the teaching of other persons? If so, what persons?" To the first part of the question 115 schools replied "yes," and only one replied "no." To the second part 78 replied "critic teachers," and the rest named one or more of the following: room teacher, experienced teacher, method teacher, supervisor, principal, departmental teacher, student teacher, student assistant, expert students, regular professors, city, town, and village teachers, normal-school teachers, and heads of departments. The most common practice seems to be for the students to observe the critic teachers.

Question seven is: "If so, do they observe before, during, or after their practice teaching?" In 18 state normal schools, or in 15 per cent of the group studied, students observe before their work in teaching begins, and continue observing during their term of teaching and also after their teaching is done. Eight schools, or 7 per cent, require observations during the time of teaching only. Eight schools, or 7 per cent, require observations both during and after the teaching period. Twenty-five schools, or 22 per cent, require observations before the time of teaching only. Fifty-five schools, or 49 per cent, require observations both before and during teaching. A few of the answers cannot be placed in any of these groups. Examples are: "take little stock in observation work"; "observe only when need arises"; "each student has observation period assigned on program." The most

common practice is to observe both before and during the teaching period. Over 70 per cent of these schools follow this plan.

In reply to question eight, "How much observation work is required?" we have various and puzzling answers such as: "one week out of six"; "no rule"; "twenty hours"; "one hour per week"; "much"; "little"; "one hour a day for a term"; "no minimum and no maximum"; "about three times as much as teaching"; "perhaps three weeks in two years"; "two hundred to two hundred and fifty hours"; "one week in five in the Junior year"; "one year of teaching, about half of which is observation"; "one hour per week for one-half year"; "possibly one-tenth of the time devoted to teaching"; "twenty weeks in special subjects." The only conclusions to be drawn from such replies are that local circumstances govern the amount of time given to observation work, and that, in general, observation work is considered less valuable than practice teaching.

In almost every institution in question some observation work is required. In the few schools in which no practice teaching is required the amount of observation work is naturally much greater than in those requiring practice teaching. In schools that require one year of practice teaching it is common to have from 20–30 observations along with the teaching. The student observes the recitations of a critic teacher until he feels competent to take charge of the class himself. The observation of 6 or 8 lessons at the beginning of each term of teaching is usually all that is necessary. In a few schools one period a week throughout the year is set aside for observation work. The entire group of practice teachers meet with the supervisor or with one of the method teachers and observe the recitation of a critic teacher. In this way 30–40 group observations are made during the year covering all the subjects in all the grades. Each of these model lessons is discussed by the class and usually each student criticizes the lesson in a written report.

TEACHING IN THE KINDERGARTEN

To determine the amount of practice work normal schools give teachers in the kindergarten, question nine was formulated: "Are students given any practice teaching in the kindergarten?" Most

of the answers to this question fall into one of the following groups: (1) 38 schools, or 33 per cent of the 113 schools replying, answer this question in the affirmative but do not specify just what students are required or permitted to teach in the kindergarten; (2) 25 schools, or 22 per cent, reply, "to specialists only"; (3) 50 schools, or 45 per cent, do not offer any practice teaching in the kindergarten. Evidently state normal schools have been slow to accept the responsibility for the training of kindergarten teachers.

DOES THE TRAINING SCHOOL REPRESENT ACTUAL WORKING CONDITIONS?

To determine whether or not the training schools in connection with our normal schools represent actual working conditions question ten was asked: "What attempt, if any, is made to have the training school represent actual working conditions outside?" The answers fall into two groups:

1. Twenty-eight frankly state that they make no attempt to duplicate the working conditions of the outside common schools.

2. Sixty schools claim that they make all possible attempts to do so. A few of the replies indicating the feeling there is on this question follow: "some, but conditions make much impossible"; "we conform to the state course of study"; "none, except in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades"; "all possible except size of classes"; "all possible, making plans, disciplining children, and test reports to supervisors are required on outside work"; "by having the same subjects taught in the same way"; "we set standards that are better"; "we make no attempt, we aim at perfect conditions"; "just such as you will find plus high ideals"; "always attempting with little success"; "impossible, do the best we can"; "we try to set standards"; "try to make our school best type"; "our object is to meet and better conditions."

There are 17 institutions that use city and town schools for observation and practice teaching, thus meeting actual conditions. If we add these 17 to the 60 in the second group, we gain a fair appreciation of the extent of the attempt to make the model schools represent actual conditions. Such an attempt has been made in at least 73 per cent of our state normal schools.

TRAINING FOR SPECIAL TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

The eleventh question is: "What facilities, if any, are offered for departmental or special teachers to secure training?"

1. Twelve schools, or 10 per cent, reply, "little."

2. Forty-two schools, or 39 per cent, reply, "none."

3. Forty-seven schools, or 43 per cent, reply, "for special teachers."

4. Six schools, or about 5 per cent, reply, "for departmental teachers."

The following exceptional replies should also be noted; "none, but a little graduate work is offered"; "we are establishing a department for that purpose"; "there is no demand for it." A number of normal schools are training teachers in the special subjects of music, drawing and art, manual training, and domestic science, and a very few are attempting to train departmental teachers. The training provided for teachers of the special subjects greatly exceeds the training provided for departmental teachers.

Question twelve is: "Is there any training for supervisory officers or principals?" Eighty-seven schools, or 18 per cent, replied, "no," and 20 schools, or 19 per cent, replied, "yes." The extent of such attempts may be seen by a glance at the following answers: "yes, a training class is conducted for principals by the superintendent of the local schools"; "yes, for principals of rural schools"; "yes, for those taking the B.A. degree"; "yes, especially with men"; "yes, summer school offers a course"; "yes, a course in superintendency"; "no, not yet, but will"; "no, but encouraged"; "no, only incidentally"; "no, will offer a course next year"; "nothing special, but individually some." State normal schools make practically no attempt to train supervisory officers.

SUPERVISORS OF PRACTICE TEACHING

The last question which we will consider is: "Who supervises the practice teaching?" There are 129 replies to this question. From a study of these answers we should be able to determine the prevailing methods of supervising practice teaching. First of all

we find a wide range of official supervisors ranking from the president of the normal school to student-assistants. They may be classified in groups according to their respective powers and functions.

1. Principal, president, or superintendent of the normal school.
2. Principal, director, supervisor, or superintendent of the model, observation, practice, or training school.
3. General supervisor, director of training, or superintendent of practice teaching, other than principal of training school.
4. Grade teacher, sometimes called room teacher, department teacher, grade supervisor, or critic teacher.
5. Heads of departments in normal schools.
6. Professors of psychology, pedagogy, or education in such schools.
7. Teachers of general methods.
8. Teachers of special methods and special subjects.

We will consider these in the order listed above. In every state normal school it is one of the implied duties of the president or principal to supervise the practice teaching of students. However, there are only 9 institutions in the United States in which the president of the normal school directly exercises the function of supervisor. In the rest of the schools the duty of supervising practice work is delegated by the president to a subordinate. As normal schools have grown in size the administrative force has gradually been separated from the teaching force.

In about 20 schools the principal of the training department is the chief supervisor of practice teaching. But the principal neither of the normal school nor of the training school is the type supervisor of practice work today. Several other ways of handling this work are in vogue, as a further examination of the data shows.

Among these is the appointment of a general overseer of practice teaching subordinate only to the two principals. This person is variously called general supervisor, director or directress of training, and superintendent of practice teaching. There are 27 normal schools in the list studied that have an overseer of practice work in addition to the two principals above mentioned. The position of overseer of practice work has been created because of the inability

of the principals on account of increased administrative duties adequately to supervise such work. Improvements in methods of teaching have also demanded an especially trained person for such work. The establishment of such a position is in keeping with the departure from general to special courses in methods, the growing tendency toward a departmental as opposed to a grade or room plan of organization and instruction, and also with the increased size of normal and training schools.

This plan is not, however, the most common method of supervising practice and observation work. The supervision of practice teaching is done by the grade teachers to a much greater extent than by all other groups combined. It is not possible to give figures in percentage setting forth this fact, as in scarcely a single place is one group doing supervisory work to the exclusion of all other groups. The most common ways may be briefly described as follows: (1) to have one grade in a room under a regularly employed room, grade, or critic teacher; (2) to have two grades in a room under one or two such teachers; (3) to have three departments, primary, intermediate, and grammar, with one or more departmental teachers in each. Practice teachers in schools having the first or second plan take charge of the room, or of one portion of the children in that room, for from one period a day to full time. Under the department system the practice teacher usually takes a single class one hour a day during the period of teaching. In every instance without exception the critic teacher supervises the work of the student, though in possibly thirty schools the critic teacher is helped by other supervisors as well.

In a few normal schools those who are at the head of departments in the normal school supervise the teaching of their subjects in the training school. This is especially true of the newer and more recently introduced subjects, such as drawing, music, domestic science, sewing, and manual training. In fact, practice teaching in the special subjects is almost entirely supervised by the teachers of those subjects.

In 7 schools in the list the professor of education, pedagogy, or psychology also has supervision over practice teaching. Quite frequently this person is the overseer of practice work. There

are three institutions in which he is declared to be the sole supervisor. The teacher of general methods appears as a supervisor in but two institutions in the list.

The tendency is to have competent critic teachers who take charge of the students teaching in their grades; and a general overseer of practice teaching who supervises the work of the critic teachers, and also teaches general methods and the fundamental professional courses in education.

THE DECLINE OF THE ENGLISH APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM

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As was shown in a former article, the English apprenticeship system under the control of the gilds was something of a success, this success being largely due to the personal relationship existing between master and apprentice, and to the effective supervision of their relationship by the craft gild. Eminently suited as the institution was to the conditions of the Middle Ages, however, it was not equally well suited to all times and all conditions. In the present article, an attempt will be made to show: first, that the custom of apprenticeship was continued by the English government after the decline of the gild system; secondly, that the institution lost its strength as a result of the changed social and economic conditions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; and thirdly, that a revival of the apprenticeship system would prove inadequate as a solution of the present problem of industrial education.

Neither bombastic by-laws nor prosecution for offenses against them could save the gilds from decline. In some of the old corporate towns they may have retained even in the eighteenth century a considerable hold upon the local market,[1] but they had little or no control in the newer industrial centers of England, such as Manchester and Birmingham, where manufactures developed rapidly upon a capitalistic basis. In a word, the gilds, retaining the form and spirit of the Middle Ages, could not adjust themselves to the conditions of the modern era.

Though the gilds declined, apprenticeship persisted, achieving a new importance in Elizabeth's reign (1558–1603) as a part of

[1] Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations* (Cannan, ed.), I, 131: "If you would have your work tolerably executed, it must be done in the suburbs, where the workmen having no exclusive privilege, have nothing but their characters to depend upon, and you must then smuggle it into the town as well as you can."

British economic policy. Two laws were passed which greatly affected the history of the institution. The first of these, the Statute of Artificers or Apprentices,[1] forbade any one henceforth to exercise any craft then existing in England, unless he had previously served at least seven years thereto as an apprentice. This law made more general the seven-years' requirement, previously dependent chiefly on local custom and gild regulation.[2]

The second law, an act of 1601,[3] attempted to deal with the curse of pauperism. Towns and villages had fallen into decay, agriculture was giving way to sheep-farming, and the land was full of "rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy beggars." To prevent the rising generation from growing up in idleness the law of 1601 provided that the parish authorities might bind out beggar children as apprentices "where they shall see convenient."[4] By means of laws such as these two, Parliament hoped to bring about greater stability in industrial life and thus to increase the strength and prosperity of the realm of England.

Thus the institution of apprenticeship was vitally affected by the two acts of the fifth and forty-third years of Queen Elizabeth. In the first place, the number of apprentices must have been very greatly increased. In the second place, these apprentices were drawn very largely from a lower stratum of society than formerly. And finally, as has been already indicated, the institution of apprenticeship was continued under new auspices at a time when the gilds were dying out.

To the parish apprenticeship system the attempt was made to extend the idea of the personal relationship between master and apprentice. The master was still expected to perform the duties of a parent toward the indentured child, and sometimes to provide him with the elements of education. Many of the American colonies passed laws insisting upon the instruction, especially the religious instruction, of apprentices. Thus the Connecticut Code of 1650 made it incumbent upon masters to catechize their children

[1] 5 Eliz. c. 4.

[2] The law was by no means a dead letter, though enforced irregularly. From a study of local records and law reports I find this to be so.

[3] 43 Eliz. c. 2. [4] Sec. 5.

and servants once a week at least, "in the grounds and principles of religion," and to teach "by themselves or others their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue and knowledge of the capital laws."[1] In England no general law to compel masters to provide apprentices with this sort of instruction is to be found before the Act of 1802, of which mention will be made later; but individual masters sometimes agreed to see to the schooling of children bound out to them.[2]

The personal relationship, however, was being gradually undermined. The very nature of the parish apprenticeship system was such as to create a gulf between the master and his fledgling workmen. The children were from the lowest grade of society, were apt to be idle and immoral, and therefore likely to receive little consideration from their masters. A law of the latter seventeenth century widened the gulf by compelling persons, willing or unwilling, to receive parish children as apprentices at the pleasure of the authorities.[3] Not rarely the apprentice thus forced upon a parish resident must have become an object of distaste to him.

The growth of capitalism also weakened the personal relationship between master and apprentice.

The typical craftsman of the Middle Ages was a man of small means, keeping but one or two apprentices; besides, the number was limited by gild ordinance. But from the fifteenth century on, there was an increasing tendency on the part of masters possessed of capital to disregard these rules. The laws of the Framework Knitters' Company, for example, forbade more than three apprentices to be taken to one journeyman; in Queen Anne's reign (1701 to 1714) some masters took ten or more to one journeyman,[4] while later in the century a certain master "always had a staff of twenty-

[1] Clews, *Colonial Educational Legislation*, p. 59; see also Hening, *The Statutes at Large* (Virginia), 4 Anne c. 33; *Records of the Massachusetts Colony*, II, 6; Clews, *op. cit., passim.*

[2] Bateson, *Leicester Records*, III, 197; Markham and Cox, *Records of Northampton*, II, 323.

[3] 8 and 9 Will. III, c. 30. In one instance a girl was bound out to a clergyman, who was compelled "to teach her the art and mystery of husbandry" (Cox, *Derbyshire* I, 243).

[4] W. Felkin, *History of the Machine Wrought Hosiery and Lace Manufactures*, p. 23.

five apprentices, more or less, and never employed a journeyman for more than thirty years."[1]

The impossibility of keeping up the old family relationship under these conditions, the impossibility of giving apprentices adequate trade instruction, is obvious. The capitalist manufacturer would not stand *in loco parentis* to twenty or thirty ragged children nor would he take pains to teach them their trade properly. Even had he had the time and inclination to instruct them, it was becoming less and less to his economic interest to do so. For as the number of apprentices and other operatives increased, the tendency was to confine workmen to one or two processes of manufacture, in which they might become especially skilled.[2] Such a practice was, of course, subversive of any adequate industrial education.

In general, then, the manufacturer failed to care properly for the social and economic interests of his apprentice; his predecessor, the mediaeval gild master, under the supervision of the craft gild, had equipped the youth for life in a far better way.

These conditions, affecting so seriously the lives of apprentices, were aggravated by the growth of cut-throat competition and the increased use of labor-saving machinery. For their own advantage, capitalists "used all their power to oppress the laborers, and drove down wages to starvation point,"[3] and after Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* appeared (1776) manufacturers used his *laissez-faire* theory to justify intellectually and morally their policy of unrestricted competition and control of industry.[4] Thus capital and competition brought antagonism between employer and employee, between master and apprentice.

The epoch of invention, beginning about the middle of the eighteenth century, while it marks an enormous advance in economic progress, marks also the last stage in the history of the old apprenticeship system. The invention of labor-saving machinery increased the tendency to the division of labor,[5] and thus hindered

[1] W. Felkin, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

[2] Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and Commerce*, "Modern Times," Part II, p, 615.

[3] Toynbee, *Industrial Revolution*, p. 66.

[4] Webb, *History of Trade Unionism*, p. 49.

[5] Cunningham, *op. cit.*, "Modern Times," Part II, p. 615; Baines, *History of Cotton Manufacture*, p. 184.

workers from attaining a thorough knowledge of their trades. Sometimes it rendered possible the substitution of unskilled labor, thus making a long apprenticeship unnecessary from the economic viewpoint of the master. In many instances children were now able to attend machines and carry on work which had formerly required the attention of adults.[1] Thus was the institution of apprenticeship metamorphosed into the practice of child labor; the children might retain the name of apprentices, but they were practically wretched, unintelligent little factory hands.

The decay of the apprenticeship system is also due, in part, to the lack of an adequate supervision, to take the place of that once supplied by the gilds. There was no gild court to see that the master treated his apprentice properly, no adequate system of examinations to test the results of the apprentice's work and the master's teaching. In a word, there was no institution vitally interested, as the gild had been, in the welfare of the apprentice and in his relation to his master.

Legislation did, indeed, attempt to set up a system of supervision for parish apprentices. The parish authorities were supposed to see that master and apprentice did their duty to each other;[2] but their oversight was inefficient.[3] A writer of 1732 says: "Parish officers . . . . to save expense, are apt to ruin children by putting them out as early as they can, to any sorry masters that will take them, without any concern for their education or welfare."[4] Apprentices might be neglected, ill-treated or starved by their masters; they might lead lives of idleness or wickedness, with little or no interference from the authorities.[5]

To the neglect of the parish officers, then, and to their failure to exercise a proper supervision over the relationship of master and

[1] Baines, *History of Cotton Manufacture*, p. 239.

[2] 43 Eliz. c. 2; 8 and 9 Will. III, c. 30; 17 Geo. II, c. 3; etc.

[3] Cunningham, *op. cit.*, "Modern Times," Part II, p. 629; Acts of Parliament, 7, Geo. III, c. 39, and 33 Geo. III, c. 55.

[4] Hutchins and Harrison, *History of Factory Legislation*, p. 6.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 6, 14; Felkin, *op. cit.*, p. 79. "Sir Samuel Romilly says in his *Diary* (II, 374) that he has known cases where the 'apprentices were murdered by their masters in order to get fresh premiums with new apprentices'" (Hutchins and Harrison, p. 14).

apprentice, may be in part attributed the wretched and uninstructed condition of the children in the factories.

In 1802 the government roused itself to a more vigorous effort to remedy the evils clustering around the apprenticeship system. An act was passed for the "Preservation of the Health and Morals of Apprentices and others, employed in Cotton and other Mills, and Cotton and other factories."[1] This law ordered every master or mistress of a mill to supply every apprentice "with suitable linen, stockings, hats, and shoes," one complete new suit to be delivered once a year. No apprentice was to be compelled to work more than twelve hours in any one day, nor to work between nine at night and six in the morning. It was also enacted that every apprentice should be instructed during a part of every working-day in reading, writing, and arithmetic by some person provided and paid by the master and mistress. Furthermore, religious instruction was to be given and masters were to see to it that their apprentices attended divine service regularly. It is clear that this act is an attempt to make the master responsible, as of yore, for the moral and physical welfare of his young charges. But manufacturers could not be made to accept this responsibility; this and later "factory acts" failed in their purpose.[2] Shortly afterward the apprenticeship clauses of the Act of Fifth Elizabeth were abolished, first for those engaged in the woolen manufactures,[3] and in 1814 for all trades.[4] The day of apprenticeship as a system was past. Social progress had failed to keep pace with economic advance and the twentieth century is therefore attempting to solve problems created by the seventeenth and eighteenth.

It is evident from all this that during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the English apprenticeship system was by no means a success. Neither the social nor the economic interests of the apprentice were cared for properly. In mediaeval times the master had received the boy into the family life, looked after his moral and religious, as well as his physical, welfare, and in teaching him his craft, had given him the advantage of individual instruction. If the master were negligent in his teaching, if he failed in his social

[1] 42 Geo. III, c. 73.
[2] Hutchins and Harrison, p. 17.
[3] 49 Geo. III, c. 109.
[4] 54 Geo. III, c. 96.

duty toward the lad, he was called to account by the authority of the gild. In general the mediaeval apprentice was not ill-prepared to take his place in society. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries manufacturers were outgrowing the gild system and paid less and less attention to restrictions made upon the number of apprentices by either the gild or the government. With a large number of apprentices the manufacturer could not sustain the same personal relations as with one or two. Craft instruction and moral training suffered accordingly. Furthermore, with the employment of large numbers of apprentices came the temptation to the master to perfect each apprentice in one or two processes instead of teaching him the whole trade. Finally, as the use of machinery increased, the need for skilled labor decreased and not infrequently the apprentice became merely the unskilled operative of a machine. On the other hand, the manufacturer needed not only a wide knowledge of his craft, but a considerable amount of capital as well to succeed in his business. Thus it came about that the apprentice in many branches of manufacture could not look forward to becoming a master as a matter of course, but was forced to remain a factory operative all his life.

The social gulf between the master and his apprentices, which was in many cases created by the rise of capital, was further increased by the parish apprenticeship system. Apprentices drawn from the lowest portion of society could not expect always to be received on terms of equality into their masters' houses, especially where the masters were forced by the authorities to receive these apprentices. There was indeed an attempt to preserve the old personal relation between master and apprentice, but there was no institution like the gild to see that the right relation was preserved. In general the attempt was not a success and the condition of the parish apprentices was frequently wretched indeed. This is true not merely of the factories, but of the handicrafts as well. In its latter days, then, the apprenticeship system was a failure.

Would it be a success if it were generally revived at the present time? There can be no doubt that many of the factors instrumental in breaking down the old apprenticeship system are dominant in industrial life today. Capital is a prime moving force, the

factory system is firmly fixed, the captain of industry deals with large numbers of operatives, not with a few journeymen and apprentices. The social gulf between employer and employee is as great as ever, the economic difficulties preventing the operative from rising into the manufacturing class are greater than ever. More than this, there is a distinct antagonism between the employing and the employed classes. These conditions would make it impossible to bring back the old personal relationship and identity of economic interest between master and apprentice, which formed so important an element of the success of the old system.[1] If the apprenticeship system is to be revived, then, it must be revived in some form totally different from that of the Middle Ages.

It must be remembered that the problem of industrial education is both economic and social in character. It means not merely that the youth should be trained to become an efficient workman with a skilled knowledge of all branches of his trade, but it means also that there should be implanted in him high ideals in regard to his work, that his growing moral nature should be developed at a period in his life when temptation is most likely to assail him; in a word, that he should be made an efficient and high-minded member of society.

If the problem were merely the economic one of supplying manufacturers with skilled labor, it might possibly be left to the employing class for solution. Just now there is a growing demand among employers for skilled labor; consequently enterprising manufacturing concerns are paying more attention to the apprenticeship system, and are establishing apprentice schools which have met with some success.[2] There can be no doubt, too, that certain specialized branches of manufacture can never be well taught save in the concerns carrying on these industries.[3] On the other hand, the demand of employers for skilled labor affects but a small proportion of the industrial classes, for employers need thoroughly trained mechanics for only a comparatively small number of posi-

[1] This would not apply to those trades which still remain largely on a handicraft basis, such as those of barber and custom tailor.

[2] Carroll D. Wright, *The Apprenticeship System in Its Relation to Industrial Education.*

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 33, 35, 41.

tions, while the question of industrial education concerns some 90 per cent of the population. Already the advisability of giving apprentices a thorough knowledge of the principles underlying its manufacture is being questioned by at least one concern which has established a school for apprentices. Principal J. D. Burks, of the Teachers Training School, Albany, N.Y., writes:

> A few weeks ago I was inspecting one of the largest manufacturing establishments in New York state, which had recently organized a school for apprentices, provided it with a thoroughly modern equipment, and placed in charge a well-educated man of high ideals and practical ability. Here, I thought, I had found an enterprise that might have something to teach the schools concerning their effort to meet concrete social needs. The master-mechanic, to whose initiative this school was due, told me, however, that he had serious doubt as to the practical value of his apprentice school. He thought he would direct the teacher to use the machines for demonstration purposes only, as the boys spent too much time "figuring out how to get a piece of work set up, and how to get the thing done." "These boys," he said, "will work all their lives for our company, and we want them to do things our way. We don't want the boys to draw; we want them to read drawings. We don't want them to figure; we want them to read figures. We don't want them to boss. We want them to be bossed." And he might have added, "We don't want them to think, but to become automatic machines."[1]

It is evident, then, that manufacturing establishments do not always feel it to their economic advantage to give apprentices a broad knowledge of the various processes of their branches of manufacture.[2]

It is hardly probable that the manufacturer will fully perceive the social significance of the movement for industrial education and

[1] Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1909, p. 293.

[2] "President Charles S. Howe, of the Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio, in 1907, sent a letter to 400 manufacturers in the state of Ohio, making certain inquiries relative to the apprenticeship system, and received replies from 124, including nearly all the large concerns among the 400 addressed. Of the 124 who answered, 44 had no apprenticeship system, and were not especially interested in it; 24 had no system, but were interested. The superintendents of these 24 stated that they had no apprenticeship system because they had very few men employed, but they hoped as soon as their facilities increased, and their work expanded, to establish such a system at least to a limited extent. Fifty-six companies answered that they had apprenticeship systems more or less complete, but most of them gave the apprentices nothing more than was absolutely necessary to enable them to do their work in the particular trades engaged in with fair success."—Wright, *The Apprenticeship System.* etc., pp. 18,19.

co-operate with it. He has not done a great deal thus far to remove the deadening influences of factory labor, save where reforms have been forced on him from without. He views his employees from the economic rather than from the social point of view, and would be likely to consider the moral, aesthetic, and social training of the apprentices as more or less of a waste of time. Individual manufacturers of a philanthropic nature may do something to give their youngest workmen the right sort of industrial instruction from the social as well as the economic point of view, but not manufacturers as a class.

It is chiefly to the public school that we must look for a solution of the problem of industrial education. The public school can furnish, in greater degree than any other agency, those elements upon which the success of the mediaeval institution of apprenticeship so largely depended—an adequate system of supervision and the right personal relationship between teacher and taught. The public school has already developed a well-organized system of administration and supervision which it can easily extend to include industrial education. The thought of economic gain will not blind the eyes of the teacher to the social needs of his pupils, as it blinded the eyes of the master to the needs of the apprentice, and as it sometimes blinds the eyes of the manufacturer to the needs of the employee. More and more the public school is insisting that there be the right personal relationship between teacher and taught, for the ultimate aim of education must always be the welfare of the pupil. I doubt if there is any higher service that a teacher can perform for society than that of guiding boys in their formative years to high ideals of industrial work and of life.

BOOK REVIEWS

Theory and Practice of Teaching Art. By ARTHUR WESLEY DOW, Professor of Fine Arts in Teachers College, Columbia University. 2d ed., with additional text and illustrations. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912.

In his book, *Theory and Practice of Teaching Art,* the second edition of which appears this year, Professor Dow presents in attractive and helpful form a plan for developing aesthetic appreciation and expression.

He designates this plan as a "synthetic method"; a method of building up given material such as lines, shapes, tones, and colors into forms of aesthetic expression. This method is contrasted with what is termed the analytic or academic method, which consists in drawing from nature to acquire a knowledge of facts of appearance, and skill in representing these facts. Following the analytic method the student would begin by observing and recording facts of appearance, to be used later as a medium of expression. By the synthetic method the student begins by arranging lines, shapes, and tones so as to build up harmonious combinations. He accompanies this practice with drawing from nature in order to obtain data to render these lines and shapes significant in expression as well as beautiful in arrangement.

Professor Dow has rendered an important service to art education in thus sharply contrasting the interest in recording objective facts as they appear to the eye, with the interest in harmonious arrangement of forms so that they produce aesthetic satisfaction. He rightly insists that the principles of arrangement of lines, spaces, and tones have a logic of their own, which produces aesthetic pleasure, and which is in large degree distinct from any consideration of the subject-matter which those lines represent. He emphasizes the truth that no amount of industry or skill along the line of literal representation can by itself produce the full range of artistic expression.

The principles expressed in the book are concretely set forth in a series of exercises suitable for different grades and adapted to give acquaintance with, and ability to use, the elements of artistic expression.

While accepting Professor Dow's distinction between the interest in representing appearances and the interest in harmonious arrangement of form, one questions whether a certain loss to art would not result from limiting the value of literal drawing from objects merely to that of securing data to give significance to compositions which would otherwise be abstract, and whether practice in conscientious analysis of actual appearances has not made a contribution to art which the approach by principles of design does not include. The history of art seems to indicate that the close study of a bit of reality in order to lay hold upon its meaning and transcribe its characteristics without regard to artistic composition, often leads one beyond the scientific interest in securing information, and into an interest in the individual significance of that object, into a sympathetic attitude toward that particular portion of reality, and thus into a genuine aesthetic experience of a sort which initiates the style of expression and does not merely furnish data to make significant the otherwise abstract elements of a decorative convention.

Throughout the book the word art appears to be used in the sense of abstract design. In public education at the present time it is used, whether justifiably or not, in a more inclusive sense. The so-called teacher of art finds himself called upon to make his subject minister to other than the formally aesthetic ends which Professor Dow emphasizes and yet to ends with as important an educational significance. Whether one accepts the strict definition of art in education, or insists upon the wider significance, he will find the book a discriminating treatment of what all must consider to be one of the major aspects of the subject.

WALTER SARGENT

Experimental Psychology and Pedagogy. By R. SCHULZE. Translated by RUDOLF PINTNER. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. 364.

This book differs somewhat from the other German treatises which deal with the subject in that it gives in detail the apparatus necessary for a number of experiments. The subdivisions of the subject are, however, chiefly psychological, so that the book does not differ from a manual of experimental psychology as much as some of the books on experimental education which have appeared in English.

The first chapter deals with the mathematical methods of computing experimental and statistical results. Then follow chapters on Sensations, Perceptions and Ideas, Feelings, and the Will. Then follow five chapters on more complex processes of Attention, Association, Memory, Apperception, and Speech. Following this are two chapters on Mental and Physical Work and Fatigue. Finally there is a chapter on Psychical Correlations.

To the teacher of educational psychology who wishes to introduce some experimental work into the class exercises the descriptive accounts of experiments will be very useful.

C. H. J.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS[1]

IRENE WARREN[2]
Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

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Protest against narrow vocational training.

Boutroux, Emile. The thought of America and of France. Educa. R. 45:269–88. (Mr. '13.)

Boyer, Jacques. A new method of educating deaf mutes. Sci. Am. 108:221. (8 Mr. '13.)

Butler, Nicholas Murray. Vocational preparation as a social problem. Educa. R. 45:289–97. (Mr. '13.)

Canby, Henry Seidel. The professor. Harper 126:782–87. (Ap. '13.)

Coleman, Norman F. The Bible as literature in the high school. School R. 21:246–49. (Ap. '13.)

Collateral work in connection with the study of American literature. Educa. 33:448–50. (Mr. '13.)

[1] *Abbreviations.*—Educa., Education; Educa. R., Educational Review; El. School T., Elementary School Teacher; J. of Educa. Psychol., Journal of Educational Psychology; Kind. R., Kindergarten Review; Lib. J., Library Journal; Liv. Age., Living Age; Outl., Outlook; Pedagog. Sem., Pedagogical Seminary; Pop. Sci. Mo., Popular Science Monthly; Psychol. Clinic, Psychological Clinic; R. of Rs., Review of Reviews; School R., School Review; Sci. Am., Scientific American; Teach. Coll. Rec., Teachers' College Record; Tech. World M., Technical World Magazine; Voca. Educa., Vocational Education.

[2] Annotations by Dr. F. N. Freeman.

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DeBusk, B. W. Height, weight, capacity, and retardation. Pedagog. Sem. 20:89–92. (Mr. '13.)

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Education: a keynote of the Panama Pacific Exposition. R. of Rs. 47:309.

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